

# Interior angle sums of geodesic triangles in $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ and $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ geometries

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**Abstract.** In the present paper we study  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  and  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometries, which are homogeneous Thurston 3-geometries. We analyse the interior angle sums of geodesic triangles in both geometries and we prove that in  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  space it can be larger than or equal to  $\pi$  and in  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  space the angle sums can be less than or equal to  $\pi$ . This proof is a new direct approach to the issue and it is based on the projective model of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  and  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometries described by E. Molnár in [7].

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## 1 Introduction

A geodesic triangle in Riemannian geometry and more generally in metric geometry is a figure consisting of three different points together with the pairwise-connecting geodesic curves. The points are known as the vertices, while the geodesic curve segments are known as the sides of the triangle.

In the geometries of constant curvature  $\mathbf{E}^3$ ,  $\mathbf{H}^3$ ,  $\mathbf{S}^3$  the well-known sums of the interior angles of geodesic triangles characterize the space. It is related to the Gauss-Bonnet theorem which states that the integral of the Gauss curvature on a compact 2-dimensional Riemannian manifold  $M$  is equal to  $2\pi\chi(M)$  where  $\chi(M)$  denotes the Euler characteristic of  $M$ . This theorem has a generalization to any compact even-dimensional Riemannian manifold (see e.g.[2, 5]).

*Remark 1.* In the Thurston spaces translation curves can be introduced in a natural way (see [7]). These curves are simpler than geodesics and differ from them in  $\mathbf{Nil}$ ,  $\mathbf{SL}_2\mathbf{R}$  and  $\mathbf{Sol}$  geometries. In  $\mathbf{E}^3$ ,  $\mathbf{S}^3$ ,  $\mathbf{H}^3$ ,  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  and  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometries the mentioned curves coincide with each other ([1, 4, 15, 21]).

In [4] we investigated the angle sums of translation and geodesic triangles in  $\mathbf{SL}_2\mathbf{R}$  geometry and proved that the possible sum of the interior angles in a translation triangle must be greater than or equal to  $\pi$ . However, in geodesic triangles this sum is less, greater or equal to  $\pi$ .

In [20] we considered the analogous problem for geodesic triangles in  $\mathbf{Nil}$  geometry and proved that the sum of the interior angles of geodesic triangles in  $\mathbf{Nil}$  space is larger than, less than or equal to  $\pi$ . In [1] K. Brodaczewska showed that sum of

the interior angles of translation triangles of the **Nil** space is larger than or equal to  $\pi$ .

In [21] we studied the interior angle sums of *translation triangles* in **Sol** geometry and proved that the possible sum of the interior angles in a translation triangle must be greater than or equal to  $\pi$ . Further interesting properties of translation triangles and tetrahedra are described in [15].

However, in  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  and **Sol** Thurston geometries there are no results concerning the angle sums of *geodesic triangles*. Therefore, it is interesting to study this question in the above three geometries.

In the present paper, we are interested in *geodesic triangles* in  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  and  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  spaces [13, 22].

In Section 2 we describe the projective model and the isometry group of the considered geometries, moreover, we give an overview about its geodesic curves. *In Section 3 we study the  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  and  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geodesic triangles and their properties. We analyse the interior angle sums of geodesic triangles in both geometries and we prove that in  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  space it can be larger than or equal to  $\pi$  and in  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  space the angle sums can be less than or equal to  $\pi$ . This is a consequence of comparison theorems in Riemannian geometry (Toponogov and Alexandrov's theorems, see [3]), since the sectional curvature of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  is non-negative and the sectional curvature of  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  is non-positive.*

*Our new proof gives a new direct approach to the issue and it is based on the projective model of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  and  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometries described by E. Molnár in [7].*

## 2 Projective models of $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ and $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ spaces

E. Molnár has shown in [7] that the homogeneous 3-spaces have a unified interpretation in the projective 3-sphere  $\mathcal{PS}^3(\mathbf{V}^4, \mathbf{V}_4, \mathbf{R})$ . In our work we shall use this projective model of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  and  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometries. The Cartesian homogeneous coordinate simplex is  $E_0(\mathbf{e}_0), E_1^\infty(\mathbf{e}_1), E_2^\infty(\mathbf{e}_2), E_3^\infty(\mathbf{e}_3), (\{\mathbf{e}_i\} \subset \mathbf{V}^4$  with the unit point  $E(\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{e}_0 + \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3))$ , which is distinguished by an origin  $E_0$  and by the ideal points of coordinate axes, respectively. Moreover,  $\mathbf{y} = c\mathbf{x}$  with  $0 < c \in \mathbf{R}$  (or  $c \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \{0\}$ ) defines a point  $(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{y})$  of the projective 3-sphere  $\mathcal{PS}^3$  (or that of the projective space  $\mathcal{P}^3$  where opposite rays  $(\mathbf{x})$  and  $(-\mathbf{x})$  are identified). The dual system  $\{(\mathbf{e}^i)\} \subset \mathbf{V}_4$  describes the simplex planes, especially the plane at infinity  $(\mathbf{e}^0) = E_1^\infty E_2^\infty E_3^\infty$ , and generally,  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \frac{1}{c}$  defines a plane  $(\mathbf{u}) = (\mathbf{v})$  of  $\mathcal{PS}^3$  (or that of  $\mathcal{P}^3$ ). Thus  $0 = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{y}\mathbf{v}$  defines the incidence of point  $(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{y})$  and plane  $(\mathbf{u}) = (\mathbf{v})$ , as  $(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{I}(\mathbf{u})$  also denotes it. Thus  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  can be visualized in the affine 3-space  $\mathbf{A}^3$  (so in  $\mathbf{E}^3$ ) as well.

### 2.1 Geodesic curves in $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ space

In this section we recall the important notions and results from the papers [7, 11, 14, 16, 17].

The well-known infinitesimal arc-length square at any point of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  is as follows

$$(ds)^2 = \frac{(dx)^2 + (dy)^2 + (dz)^2}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}. \quad (2.1)$$

We shall apply the usual geographical coordinates  $(\phi, \theta)$ ,  $(-\pi < \phi \leq \pi, -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2})$  of the sphere with the fibre coordinate  $t \in \mathbf{R}$ . We describe points in the above coordinate system in our model by the following equations:

$$x^0 = 1, \quad x^1 = e^t \cos \phi \cos \theta, \quad x^2 = e^t \sin \phi \cos \theta, \quad x^3 = e^t \sin \theta. \quad (2.2)$$

Then we have  $x = \frac{x^1}{x^0} = x^1$ ,  $y = \frac{x^2}{x^0} = x^2$ ,  $z = \frac{x^3}{x^0} = x^3$ , i.e. the usual Cartesian coordinates. We obtain by [7] that in this parametrization the infinitesimal arc-length square at any point of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  is the following

$$(ds)^2 = (dt)^2 + (d\phi)^2 \cos^2 \theta + (d\theta)^2. \quad (2.3)$$

The geodesic curves of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  are generally defined as having locally minimal arc length between their any two (near enough) points. The equation systems of the parametrized geodesic curves  $\gamma(t(\tau), \phi(\tau), \theta(\tau))$  in our model can be determined by the general theory of Riemann geometry (see [5, 17]).

Then by (2.2) we get with  $c = \sin v$ ,  $\omega = \cos v$  the equation systems of a geodesic curve, visualized in Fig. 3 in our Euclidean model:

$$\begin{aligned} x(\tau) &= e^{\tau \sin v} \cos(\tau \cos v), \\ y(\tau) &= e^{\tau \sin v} \sin(\tau \cos v) \cos u, \\ z(\tau) &= e^{\tau \sin v} \sin(\tau \cos v) \sin u, \\ -\pi < u &\leq \pi, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq v \leq \frac{\pi}{2}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.4)$$

**Definition 1.** The distance  $d(P_1, P_2)$  between the points  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  is defined by the arc length of the shortest geodesic curve from  $P_1$  to  $P_2$ .

## 2.2 Geodesic curves of $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ geometry

In this section we recall the important notions and results from the papers [7, 12, 18].

The points of  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  space, forming an open cone solid in the projective space  $\mathcal{P}^3$ , are the following:

$$\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R} := \{X(\mathbf{x} = x^i \mathbf{e}_i) \in \mathcal{P}^3 : -(x^1)^2 + (x^2)^2 + (x^3)^2 < 0 < x^0, x^1\}.$$

In this context E. Molnár [7] has derived the infinitesimal arc-length square at any point of  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  as follows

$$\begin{aligned} (ds)^2 &= \frac{1}{(-x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^2} \cdot [(x)^2 + (y)^2 + (z)^2](dx)^2 + \\ &+ 2dx dy(-2xy) + 2dx dz(-2xz) + [(x)^2 + (y)^2 - (z)^2](dy)^2 + \\ &+ 2dy dz(2yz) + [(x)^2 - (y)^2 + (z)^2](dz)^2. \end{aligned} \quad (2.5)$$

This becomes simpler in the following special (cylindrical) coordinates  $(t, r, \alpha)$ , ( $r \geq 0$ ,  $-\pi < \alpha \leq \pi$ ) with the fibre coordinate  $t \in \mathbf{R}$ . We describe points in our model by the following equations:

$$x^0 = 1, \quad x^1 = e^t \cosh r, \quad x^2 = e^t \sinh r \cos \alpha, \quad x^3 = e^t \sinh r \sin \alpha. \quad (2.6)$$

Then we have  $x = \frac{x^1}{x^0} = x^1$ ,  $y = \frac{x^2}{x^0} = x^2$ ,  $z = \frac{x^3}{x^0} = x^3$ , i.e. the usual Cartesian coordinates. We obtain by [7] that in this parametrization the infinitesimal arc-length square by (2.1) at any point of  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  is the following

$$(ds)^2 = (dt)^2 + (dr)^2 + \sinh^2 r (d\alpha)^2. \quad (2.7)$$

The geodesic curves of  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  are generally defined as having locally minimal arc length between their any two (near enough) points. The equation systems of the parametrized geodesic curves  $\gamma(t(\tau), r(\tau), \alpha(\tau))$  in our model can be determined by the general theory of Riemann geometry:

By (2.5) the second order differential equation system of the  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geodesic curve is the following [18]:

$$\ddot{\alpha} + 2 \coth(r) \dot{r} \dot{\alpha} = 0, \quad \ddot{r} - \sinh(r) \cosh(r) \dot{\alpha}^2 = 0, \quad \ddot{t} = 0, \quad (2.8)$$

from which we get first a line as "geodesic hyperbola" on our model of  $\mathbf{H}^2$  times a component on  $\mathbf{R}$  each running with constant velocity  $c$  and  $\omega$ , respectively:

$$t = c \cdot \tau, \quad \alpha = 0, \quad r = \omega \cdot \tau, \quad c^2 + \omega^2 = 1. \quad (2.9)$$

We can assume that the starting point of a geodesic curve is  $(1, 1, 0, 0)$ , because we can transform a curve into an arbitrary starting point, moreover, unit velocity with "geographic" coordinates  $(u, v)$  can be assumed:

$$\begin{aligned} r(0) = \alpha(0) = t(0) = 0; \quad \dot{t}(0) = \sin v, \quad \dot{r}(0) = \cos v \cos u, \quad \dot{\alpha}(0) = \cos v \sin u; \\ -\pi < u \leq \pi, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq v \leq \frac{\pi}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Then by (2.6) we get with  $c = \sin v$ ,  $\omega = \cos v$  the equation systems of a geodesic curve, visualized in Fig. 8 in our Euclidean model [18]:

$$\begin{aligned} x(\tau) &= e^{\tau \sin v} \cosh(\tau \cos v), \\ y(\tau) &= e^{\tau \sin v} \sinh(\tau \cos v) \cos u, \\ z(\tau) &= e^{\tau \sin v} \sinh(\tau \cos v) \sin u, \\ -\pi < u \leq \pi, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq v \leq \frac{\pi}{2}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

**Definition 2.** The distance  $d(P_1, P_2)$  between the points  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  is defined by the arc length of the geodesic curve from  $P_1$  to  $P_2$ .

*Remark 2.*  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  and  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  are affine metric spaces (affine-projective spaces – in the sense of the unified formulation of [7]). Therefore their linear, affine, unimodular, etc. transformations are defined as those of the embedding affine space.

### 3 Geodesic triangles

We consider 3 points  $A_1, A_2, A_3$  in the projective model of  $X$  space (see Section 2) ( $X \in \{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}\}$ ). The *geodesic segments*  $a_k$  connecting the points  $A_i$  and  $A_j$  ( $i < j$ ,  $i, j, k \in \{1, 2, 3\}, k \neq i, j$ ) are called sides of the *geodesic triangle* with vertices  $A_1, A_2, A_3$  (see Fig. 1, 2).

In Riemannian geometries the infinitesimal arc-length square (see (2.1) and (2.5)) is used to define the angle  $\theta$  between two geodesic curves. If their tangent vectors at their common point are  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $g_{ij}$  are the components of the metric tensor then

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{u^i g_{ij} v^j}{\sqrt{u^i g_{ij} u^j} \sqrt{v^i g_{ij} v^j}} \quad (3.1)$$

It is clear by the above definition of the angles and by the infinitesimal arc-length squares that the angles are the same as the Euclidean ones at the starting point of the geodesics.

Considering a geodesic triangle  $A_1 A_2 A_3$  we can assume by the homogeneity of the considered geometries that one of its vertex coincides with the point  $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$  and the other two vertices are  $A_2 = (1, x_2, y_2, z_2)$  and  $A_3 = (1, x_3, y_3, z_3)$ .

We will consider the *interior angles* of geodesic triangles that are denoted at the vertex  $A_i$  by  $\omega_i$  ( $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ). We note here that the angle of two intersecting geodesic curves depends on the orientation of their tangent vectors.

#### 3.1 Interior angle sums in $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ geometry

In order to determine the interior angles of a geodesic triangle  $A_1 A_2 A_3$  and its interior angle sum  $\sum_{i=1}^3 (\omega_i)$ , we define *isometric transformations*  $\mathbf{T}_{A_i}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}$  ( $i \in \{2, 3\}$ , as elements of the isometry group of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry that maps the  $A_i$  onto  $A_1$ ). Let the isometry  $\mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}$  be given by the composition of some special types of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  isometries which transforms a fixed  $A_2 = (1, x_2, y_2, z_2)$  point of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  into  $(1, 1, 0, 0)$  (up to a positive determinant factor):

$\mathcal{T} = (\mathbf{Id.}, T)$  is a fibre translation,

$$\begin{aligned} A_2 &= (1, x_2, y_2, z_2) \rightarrow A_2^{\mathcal{T}} = (1, x'_2, y'_2, z'_2) = \\ &= A_2^{\mathcal{T}} = \left(1, \frac{x_2}{\sqrt{x_2^2 + y_2^2 + z_2^2}}, \frac{y_2}{\sqrt{x_2^2 + y_2^2 + z_2^2}}, \frac{z_2}{\sqrt{x_2^2 + y_2^2 + z_2^2}}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

( $A_2^{\mathcal{T}}$  has 0 fibre coordinate).  $\mathcal{R}_x = (\mathbf{R}_x, 0)$  is a special rotation about  $x$  axis with 0 fibre translation which moves the point  $(1, x'_2, y'_2, z'_2)$  into the  $[x, y]$  plane.

$$\begin{aligned} A_2^{\mathcal{T}} &= (1, x'_2, y'_2, z'_2) \rightarrow A_2^{\mathcal{T}\mathcal{R}_x} = (1, x''_2, y''_2, 0) = \\ &= A_2^{\mathcal{T}\mathcal{R}_x} = (1, x'_2, \sqrt{y'^2_2 + z'^2_2}, 0). \end{aligned} \quad (3.3)$$

Similarly,  $\mathcal{R}_z = (\mathbf{R}_z, 0)$  is a special rotation about  $z$  axis with 0 fibre translation which moves the point  $(1, x''_2, y''_2, 0)$  into the  $(1, 1, 0, 0)$  point.

$$A_2^{\mathcal{T}\mathcal{R}_x} = (1, x''_2, y''_2, 0) \rightarrow A_2^{\mathcal{T}\mathcal{R}_x\mathcal{R}_z} = (1, 1, 0, 0). \quad (3.4)$$

Finally we apply the inverse transformation  $\mathcal{R}_x^{-1}$  of rotation  $\mathcal{R}_x$  because the geodesic curve  $g(A_1, A_2)$  between the points  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  and its image  $g(A_1^2, A_1)$  under the transformation  $\mathcal{T}\mathcal{R}_x\mathcal{R}_z\mathcal{R}_x^{-1}$  lie in the same plane in Euclidean sense. The matrix of the above transformation  $\mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}} = \mathcal{T}\mathcal{R}_x\mathcal{R}_z\mathcal{R}_x^{-1}$  is the following:

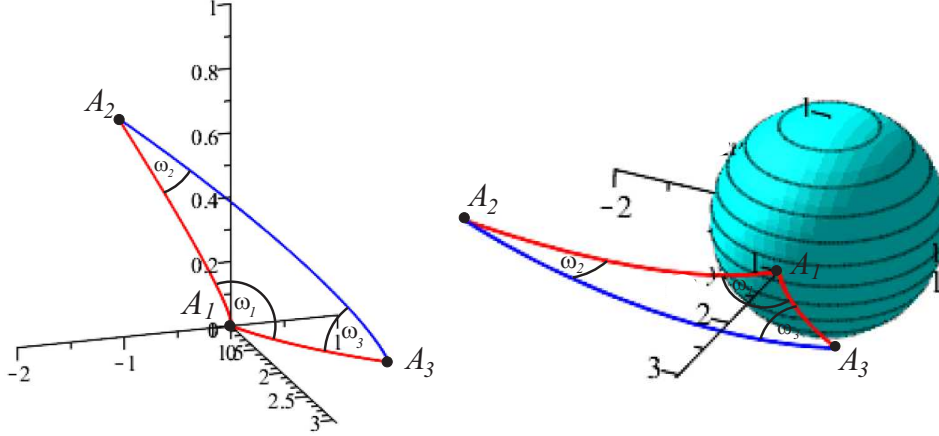


Figure 1. Geodesic triangle with vertices  $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$ ,  $A_2 = (1, 3, -2, 1)$ ,  $A_3 = (1, 2, 1, 0)$  in  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry.

$$\mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{x_2}{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2} & \frac{-y_2}{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2} \\ 0 & \frac{y_2}{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2} & \frac{(y_2)^2 x_2 + (z_2)^2 \sqrt{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2}}{((x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2)((y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2)} \\ 0 & \frac{z_2}{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2} & \frac{(y_2)z_2(-x_2 + \sqrt{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2})}{((x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2)((y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2)} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3.5)$$

and the images  $\mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_i)$  of the vertices  $A_i$  ( $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ) are the following (see also Fig. 2):

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_1) &= A_1^2 = \\ &= \left( 1, \frac{x_2}{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2}, \frac{-y_2}{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2}, \frac{-z_2}{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2} \right), \\ \mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_2) &= A_2^2 = (1, 1, 0, 0), \\ \mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_3) &= A_3^2 = \left( 1, \frac{x_2 x_3 + y_2 y_3}{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2}, \right. \\ &\quad \frac{y_2(z_2)^2 \sqrt{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2} + x_2(y_2)^2 y_3 - x_3(y_2)^3 - x_3 y_2 (z_2)^2}{((y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2)((x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2)}, \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{z_2(y_3 y_2 (\sqrt{(x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2} - x_2) + x_3(y_2)^2 + x_3(z_2)^2)}{((y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2)((x_2)^2 + (y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2)} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (3.6)$$

*Remark 3.* More information about the isometry group of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  and about its discrete subgroups can be found in [16] and [17].

Similarly to the above computation we get that the images  $\mathbf{T}_{A_3}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_i)$  of the vertices  $A_i$  ( $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ) are the following (see also Fig. 2):

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{T}_{A_3}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_1) &= A_1^3 = \left(1, \frac{x_3}{(x_3)^2 + (y_3)^2}, \frac{-y_3}{(x_3)^2 + (y_3)^2}, 0\right), \\ \mathbf{T}_{A_3}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_3) &= A_3^3 = A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0), \\ \mathbf{T}_{A_3}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_2) &= A_2^3 = \left(1, \frac{x_2 x_3 + y_2 y_3}{(x_3)^2 + (y_3)^2}, \frac{x_3 y_2 - x_2 y_3}{(x_3)^2 + (y_3)^2}, \frac{z_2}{\sqrt{(x_3)^2 + (y_3)^2}}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (3.7)$$

Our aim is to determine angle sum  $\sum_{i=1}^3 (\omega_i)$  of the interior angles of geodesic

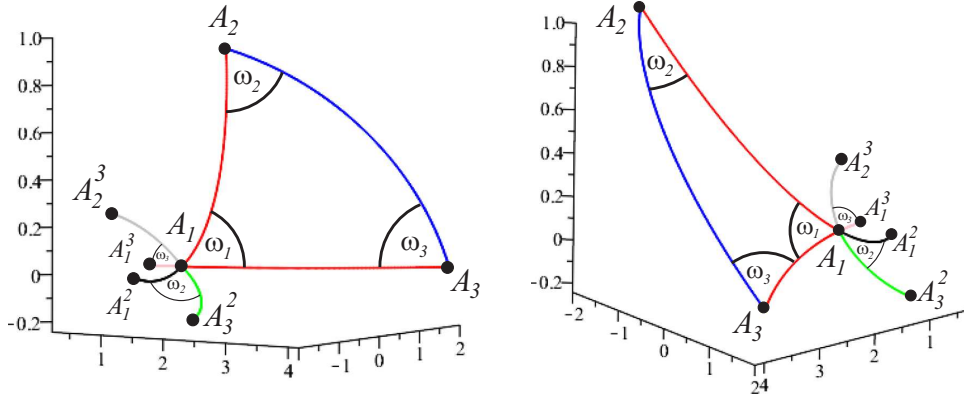


Figure 2. Geodesic triangle with vertices  $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$ ,  $A_2 = (1, 3, -2, 1)$ ,  $A_3 = (1, 2, 1, 0)$  in  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry, and transformed images of its geodesic side segments.

triangles  $A_1 A_2 A_3$  (see Fig. 1, 2). We have seen that  $\omega_1$ , the angle of geodesic curves with common point at the vertex  $A_1$ , is the same as the Euclidean one therefore it can be determined by usual Euclidean sense.

The  $\mathbf{T}_{A_i}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}$  ( $i = 2, 3$ ) are isometries in  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry thus  $\omega_i$  is equal to the angle  $(g(A_i^i, A_1^i), g(A_i^i, A_j^i))\angle$  ( $i, j = 2, 3, i \neq j$ ) (see Fig. 2) where  $g(A_i^i, A_1^i)$ ,  $g(A_i^i, A_j^i)$  are oriented geodesic curves ( $A_1 = A_2^2 = A_3^3$ ) and  $\omega_1$  is equal to the angle  $(g(A_1, A_2), g(A_1, A_3))\angle$  where  $g(A_1, A_2)$ ,  $g(A_1, A_3)$  are also oriented geodesic curves.

We denote the oriented unit tangent vectors of the oriented geodesic curves  $g(A_1, A_i^j)$  with  $\mathbf{t}_i^j$  where  $(i, j) \in \{(1, 3), (1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2), (3, 0), (2, 0)\}$  and  $A_3^0 = A_3$ ,  $A_2^0 = A_2$ . The Euclidean coordinates of  $\mathbf{t}_i^j$  (see Section 2.1) are :

$$\mathbf{t}_i^j = (\sin(v_i^j), \cos(v_i^j) \cos(u_i^j), \cos(v_i^j) \sin(u_i^j)). \quad (3.8)$$

In order to obtain the angle of two geodesic curves  $g(A_1, A_i^j)$  and  $g(A_1, A_k^l)$  ( $(i, j) \neq (k, l)$ ;  $(i, j), (k, l) \in \{(1, 3), (1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2), (3, 0), (2, 0)\}$ ) intersected at the vertex  $A_1$  we need to determine their tangent vectors  $\mathbf{t}_s^r$  ( $(s, r) \in \{(1, 3), (1, 2),$

$(2, 3), (3, 2), (3, 0), (2, 0)\}$ ) (see (3.8)) at their starting point  $A_1$ . From (3.8) it follows that a tangent vector at the origin is given by the parameters  $u$  and  $v$  of the corresponding geodesic curve (see (2.10)), which can be determined from the homogeneous coordinates of the endpoint of the geodesic curve as the following Lemma shows:

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $(1, x, y, z)$  ( $x, y, z \in \mathbf{R}, x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \neq 0$ ) be the homogeneous coordinates of the point  $P \in \mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ . The parameters of the corresponding geodesic curve  $g(A_1, P)$  are the following:*

1.  $y, z \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \neq 1$ ;

$$v = \arctan\left(\frac{\log \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}{\arccos \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}}\right), \quad u = \arctan\left(\frac{z}{y}\right),$$

$$\tau = \frac{\log \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}{\sin v}, \quad \text{where } -\pi < u \leq \pi, \quad -\pi/2 \leq v \leq \pi/2, \quad \tau \in \mathbf{R}^+.$$
(3.9)

2.  $y = 0, z \neq 0$  and  $x^2 + z^2 \neq 1$ ;

$$u = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad v = \arctan\left(\frac{\log \sqrt{x^2 + z^2}}{\arccos \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + z^2}}}\right),$$

$$\tau = \frac{\log \sqrt{x^2 + z^2}}{\sin v}, \quad \text{where } -\pi/2 \leq v \leq \pi/2, \quad \tau \in \mathbf{R}^+.$$
(3.10)

3.  $y = 0, z \neq 0$  and  $x^2 + z^2 = 1$ ;

$$u = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad v = 0, \quad \tau = \arccos(x), \quad \tau \in \mathbf{R}^+.$$
(3.11)

4.  $y, z = 0$ ;

$$u = 0, \quad v = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad \tau = \log \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}, \quad \tau \in \mathbf{R}^+.$$
(3.12)

5.  $x = 0, y = 0$  and  $z \neq 1$ ;

$$u = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad v = \arctan \frac{2 \log |z|}{\pi}, \quad \tau = \frac{\log |z|}{\sin v},$$

$$-\pi/2 \leq v \leq \pi/2, \quad \tau \in \mathbf{R}^+.$$
(3.13)

□

We obtain directly from the (2.4) equations of the geodesic curves the following

**Lemma 2.** *Let  $P$  be an arbitrary point and  $g(A_1, P)$  ( $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$ ) is a geodesic curve in the considered model of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry. The points of the geodesic curve  $g(A_1, P)$  and the centre of the model  $E_0$  lie in a plane in Euclidean sense (see Fig. 3).*

□



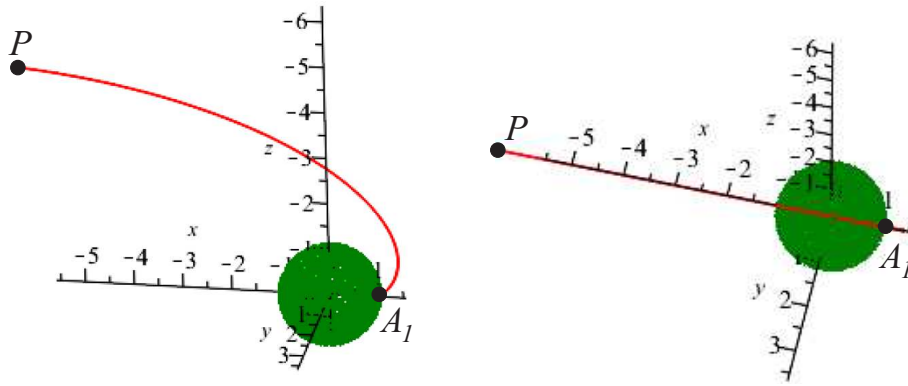


Figure 3. Geodesic curve  $g(A_1, P)$  ( $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$ ) and  $P \in \mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  with “base plane”, the plane of a geodesic curve contains the origin  $E_0 = (1, 0, 0, 0)$  of the model.

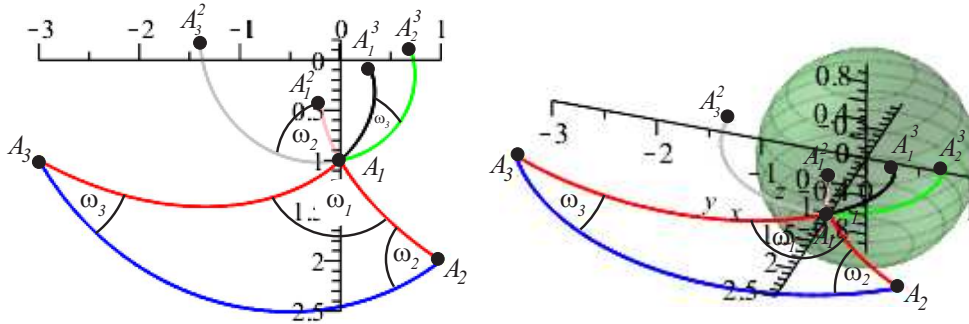


Figure 4. Geodesic triangle with vertices  $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$ ,  $A_2 = (1, 1, -3, 0)$ ,  $A_3 = (1, 2, 1, 0)$  in  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry, and transformed images of its geodesic side segments. The geodesic curve segments  $g(A_1, A_2)$ ,  $g(A_2, A_3)$ ,  $g(A_1, A_3)$  lie on the coordinate plane  $[x, y]$  and the interior angle sum of this geodesic triangle is  $\sum_{i=1}^3 (\omega_i) = \pi$ .

**Theorem 1.** *If the Euclidean plane of the vertices of an  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geodesic triangle  $A_1A_2A_3$  contains the centre of model  $E_0$  then its interior angle sum is equal to  $\pi$ .*

**Proof:** We can assume without loss of generality that the vertices  $A_1, A_2, A_3$  of such a geodesic triangle lie in the  $[x, y]$  plane of the model. Using Lemma 2 we get that the geodesic segments  $A_1A_2$ ,  $A_1A_3$  and  $A_2A_3$  are contained by the  $[x, y]$  plane, too.

The  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  transformations  $\mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}$  and  $\mathbf{T}_{A_3}^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}$  are isometries in  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry, thus  $\omega_2$  is equal to the angle  $(g(A_2^2, A_1^2), g(A_2^2, A_3^2))\angle$  (see Fig. 2, 4) of the oriented geodesic segments  $g(A_2^2, A_1^2)$ ,  $g(A_2^2, A_3^2)$  and  $\omega_3$  is equal to the angle  $(g(A_3^3, A_1^3), g(A_3^3, A_2^3))\angle$  of the oriented geodesic segments  $g(A_3^3, A_1^3)$  and  $g(A_3^3, A_2^3)$  ( $A_1 = A_2^2 = A_3^3$ ).

Substituting the coordinates of the points  $A_i^j$  (see (3.5), (3.6) and (3.7))  $((i, j) \in$

$\{(1, 3), (1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2), (3, 0), (2, 0)\}$ ) into the appropriate equations (3.8-12) of Lemma 1, it is easy to see that

$$\begin{aligned} v_2^0 &= -v_1^2, \quad u_2^0 - u_1^2 = \pm\pi \Rightarrow \mathbf{t}_2^0 = -\mathbf{t}_1^2, \\ v_3^0 &= -v_1^3, \quad u_3^0 - u_1^3 = \pm\pi \Rightarrow \mathbf{t}_3^0 = -\mathbf{t}_1^3, \\ v_3^2 &= -v_2^3, \quad u_3^2 - u_2^3 = \pm\pi \Rightarrow \mathbf{t}_3^2 = -\mathbf{t}_2^3. \end{aligned} \tag{3.13}$$

The endpoints  $T_i^j$  of the position vectors  $\mathbf{t}_i^j = \overrightarrow{A_1 T_i^j}$  lie on the unit sphere centred at the origin. The measure of angle  $\omega_i$  ( $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ) of the vectors  $\mathbf{t}_i^j$  and  $\mathbf{t}_r^s$  is equal to the spherical distance of the corresponding points  $T_i^j$  and  $T_r^s$  on the unit sphere (see Fig. 4). Moreover, a direct consequence of equations (3.13) is that each point pair  $(T_2, T_1^2), (T_3, T_1^3), (T_2^3, T_3^2)$  contains antipodal points related to the unit sphere with centre  $A_1$ .

Due to the antipodality  $\omega_1 = T_2 A_1 T_3 \angle = T_1^2 A_1 T_1^3 \angle$ , therefore their corresponding spherical distances are equal, as well (see Fig. 4). Now, the sum of the interior angles  $\sum_{i=1}^3(\omega_i)$  can be considered as three consecutive spherical arcs  $(T_3^2 T_1^2), (T_1^2 T_1^3), (T_1^3 T_2^3)$ . Since the points  $T_2, T_1^2, T_3, T_1^3, T_2^3, T_3^2$  lie in the  $[x, y]$  plane (see Lemma 2) the sum of these arc lengths is equal to the half of the circumference of the main circle on the unit sphere, i.e.  $\pi$ .  $\square$

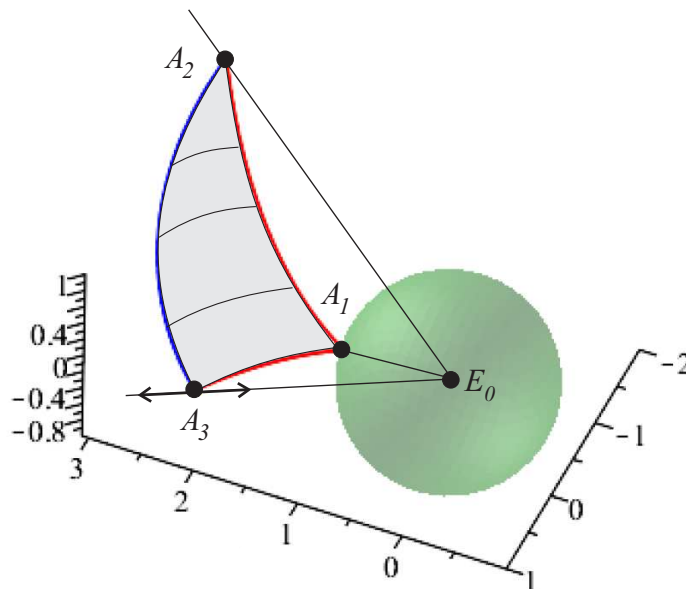


Figure 5. Geodesic triangle with vertices  $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$ ,  $A_2 = (1, 3, -2, 1)$ ,  $A_3 = (1, 2, 1, 0)$  and the correspondig trihedron with base sphere of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry.

We can determine the interior angle sum of arbitrary geodesic triangle. In the following table we summarize some numerical data of interior angles of given geodesic triangles:

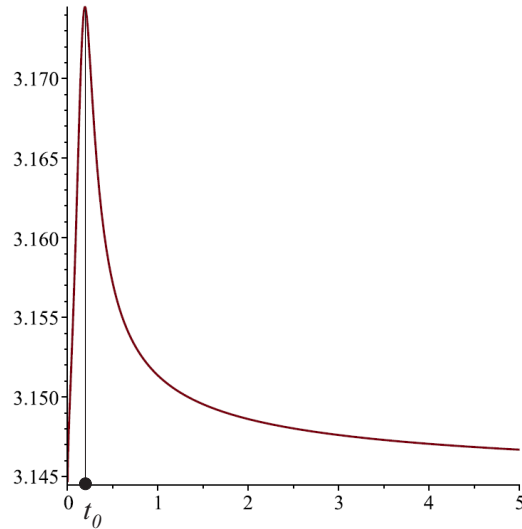


Figure 6.  $S(\Delta(t))$  function related to parameters  $x_2 = 3, y_2 = -2, z_2 = 1, x_3 = 2 \cdot t, y_3 = 1 \cdot t, z_3 = 0$ .

<b>Table 1:</b> $A_1 = (1, 0, 0, 0), A_2 = (1, 3, -2, 1)$				
$A_3/\omega_i$	$\omega_1$	$\omega_2$	$\omega_3$	$\sum_{i=1}^3(\omega_i)$
$(1, 2/\sqrt{5}, 1/\sqrt{5}, 0)$	1.97206	0.26028	0.92635	3.15869
$(1, 2, 1, 0)$	0.94654	0.68775	1.51707	3.15135
$(1, 4, 2, 0)$	0.73193	1.29546	1.12123	3.14862
$(1, 12, 6, 0)$	0.61470	1.99926	0.53246	3.14643
$(1, 2000, 1000, 0)$	0.50628	2.52677	0.11050	3.14355

By the above experiences and computations we obtain the following

**Theorem 2.** *If the Euclidean plane of the vertices of a  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geodesic triangle  $A_1A_2A_3$  does not contain the centre of model  $E_0$  then its interior angle sum is greater than  $\pi$ .*

**Proof:** We can assume without loss of generality that the vertices  $A_1, A_2$  of such a geodesic triangle lie in the  $[x, y]$  plane of the model. Using Lemma 2 we get that the geodesic segment  $A_iA_j$  ( $(i, j) \in \{(1, 2), (1, 3), 2, 3\}$ ) is contained in the  $A_iA_jE_0$  plane, therefore the sides of triangle  $A_1A_2A_3$  lie on the boundary of trihedron given by the points  $E_0, A_1, A_2, A_3$  (see Fig. 2 and 5). It is clear that all types of geodesic triangles can be described by such a triangle. Therefore, it is sufficient to investigate the interior angle sums of geodesic triangles where we fix two of the vertices, e.g.  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ , and move the third vertex  $A_3$  on the half straight line  $E_0A_3$  with starting point  $E_0 \neq A_3(t)$ .

*Remark 4.* It is well known that if the vertices  $A_1, A_2, A_3$  lie on a sphere of radius  $R \in \mathbf{R}^+$  centred at  $E_0$  then the interior angle sum of spherical triangle  $A_1A_2A_3$  is greater than  $\pi$ .

Let  $\Delta^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t)$  ( $t \in \mathbf{R}^+$ ) denote the above geodesic triangle with *interior angles*  $\omega_i(t)$  at the vertex  $A_i$  ( $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ).

The interior angle sum function  $S(\Delta(t)) = \sum_{i=1}^3 (\omega_i(t))$  can be determined relative to the parameters  $x_2, y_2, z_2, x_3, y_3 \in \mathbf{R}$  by the formulas (2.4), (3.6), (3.7) and by Lemma 1. Analyzing the above complicated continuous functions of single real variable  $t$  we get that its maximum is achieved at a point  $t_0 \in (0, \infty)$  depending on given parameters. Moreover,  $S(\Delta^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t))$  is strictly increasing on the interval  $(0, t_0)$ , strictly decreasing on the interval  $(t_0, \infty)$  and

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} S(\Delta^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t)) = \pi, \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} S(\Delta^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t)) = \pi.$$

In Fig. 6 we described the  $S(\Delta^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t))$  function related to geodesic triangle  $\Delta^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t)$  ( $t \in (0, 5)$ ) with vertices  $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$ ,  $A_2 = (1, 3, -2, 1)$ ,  $A_3 = (1, 2 \cdot t, 1 \cdot t, 0)$ . Its maximum is achieved at  $t_0 \approx 0.19316$  where  $S(\Delta^{\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t_0)) \approx 3.17450$ .  $\square$

Finally we get the following

**Theorem 3.** *The sum of the interior angles of a geodesic triangle of  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  space is greater than or equal to  $\pi$ .*  $\square$

### 3.2 Interior angle sums in $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ geometry

Similarly to the  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  space we investigate the interior angles of a geodesic triangle  $A_1 A_2 A_3$  and its interior angle sum  $\sum_{i=1}^3 (\omega_i)$  in the  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  space. Therefore we define *isometric transformations*  $\mathbf{T}_{A_i}^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}$  ( $i \in \{2, 3\}$ ) as elements of the isometry group of  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry that maps the  $A_i$  onto the vertex  $A_1$ . Let the isometry  $\mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}$  be given by the composition of some special types of  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  isometries, which transforms a fixed  $A_2 = (1, x_2, y_2, z_2)$  point of  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  into  $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$  (up to a positive determinant factor). The methods, the considered transformations and the determinations of their matrices are similar to the  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  case and therefore are not detailed here. The images  $\mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_i)$  of the vertices  $A_i$  ( $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ) are the following (see also Fig. 7, 9):

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_1) = A_1^2 = \\ & = \left( 1, \frac{x_2}{(x_2)^2 - (y_2)^2 - (z_2)^2}, \frac{-y_2}{(x_2)^2 - (y_2)^2 - (z_2)^2}, \frac{-z_2}{(x_2)^2 - (y_2)^2 - (z_2)^2} \right), \\ & \mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_2) = A_2^2 = (1, 1, 0, 0), \\ & \mathbf{T}_{A_2}^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_3) = A_3^2 = \left( 1, \frac{x_2 x_3 - y_2 y_3}{(x_2)^2 - (y_2)^2 - (z_2)^2}, \right. \\ & \quad \frac{y_3 (z_2)^2 \sqrt{(x_2)^2 - (y_2)^2 - (z_2)^2} + x_2 (y_2)^2 y_3 - x_3 (y_2)^3 - x_3 y_2 (z_2)^2}{((y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2)((x_2)^2 - (y_2)^2 - (z_2)^2)}, \\ & \quad \left. - \frac{z_2 (y_3 y_2 (\sqrt{(x_2)^2 - (y_2)^2 - (z_2)^2} - x_2) + x_3 (y_2)^2 + x_3 (z_2)^2)}{((y_2)^2 + (z_2)^2)((x_2)^2 - (y_2)^2 - (z_2)^2)} \right). \end{aligned} \tag{3.14}$$

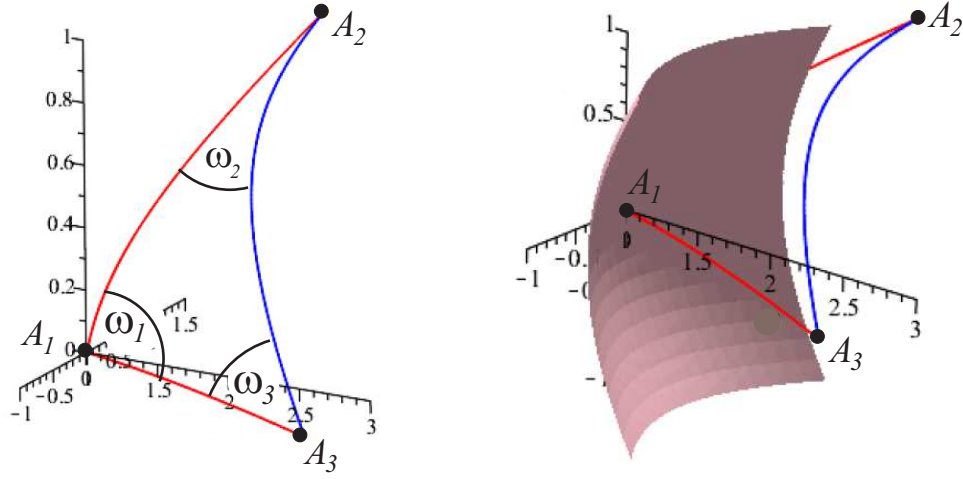


Figure 7. Geodesic triangle with vertices  $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$ ,  $A_2 = (1, 2, 3/2, 1)$ ,  $A_3 = (1, 3, -1, 0)$  in  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry.

*Remark 5.* More information about the isometry group of  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  and about its discrete subgroups can be found in [18].

Similarly to the above computation we get that the images  $\mathbf{T}_{A_3}^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_i)$  of the vertices  $A_i$  ( $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ) are the following (see also Fig. 7, 9):

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{T}_{A_3}^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_1) &= A_1^3 = \left(1, \frac{x_3}{(x_3)^2 - (y_3)^2}, \frac{-y_3}{(x_3)^2 - (y_3)^2}, 0\right), \\ \mathbf{T}_{A_3}^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_3) &= A_3^3 = A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0), \\ \mathbf{T}_{A_3}^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(A_2) &= A_2^3 = \left(1, \frac{x_2 x_3 - y_2 y_3}{(x_3)^2 - (y_3)^2}, \frac{x_3 y_2 - x_2 y_3}{(x_3)^2 - (y_3)^2}, \frac{z_2}{\sqrt{(x_3)^2 - (y_3)^2}}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (3.15)$$

The method is the same as that used for  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  case to determine angle sum  $\sum_{i=1}^3 (\omega_i)$  of the interior angles of geodesic triangles  $A_1 A_2 A_3$  (see Fig. 7, 9). We have seen that  $\omega_1$ , the angle of geodesic curves with common point at the vertex  $A_1$ , is the same as the Euclidean one therefore it can be determined in usual Euclidean sense.

$\omega_i$  is equal to the angle  $(g(A_i^i, A_1^i), g(A_i^i, A_j^i))\angle$  ( $i, j = 2, 3, i \neq j$ ) (see Fig. 7, 9) where  $g(A_i^i, A_1^i)$ ,  $g(A_i^i, A_j^i)$  are oriented geodesic curves ( $A_1 = A_2^2 = A_3^3$ ) and  $\omega_1$  is equal to the angle  $(g(A_1, A_2), g(A_1, A_3))\angle$  where  $g(A_1, A_2)$ ,  $g(A_1, A_3)$  are also oriented geodesic curves. We denote the oriented unit tangent vectors of the oriented geodesic curves  $g(A_1, A_i^j)$  with  $\mathbf{t}_i^j$  where  $(i, j) \in \{(1, 3), (1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2), (3, 0), (2, 0)\}$  and  $A_3^0 = A_3$ ,  $A_2^0 = A_2$ . The Euclidean coordinates of  $\mathbf{t}_i^j$  coincide with the coordinates in (3.8) (see Section 2.2). In order to obtain the angle of two geodesic curves  $g(A_1, A_i^j)$  and  $g(A_1, A_k^l)$  ( $(i, j) \neq (k, l)$ ;  $(i, j), (k, l) \in \{(1, 3), (1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2), (3, 0), (2, 0)\}$ ) intersected at the vertex  $A_1$  we need to determine their tangent vectors  $\mathbf{t}_s^r$  ( $((s, r) \in \{(1, 3), (1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2), (3, 0), (2, 0)\})$

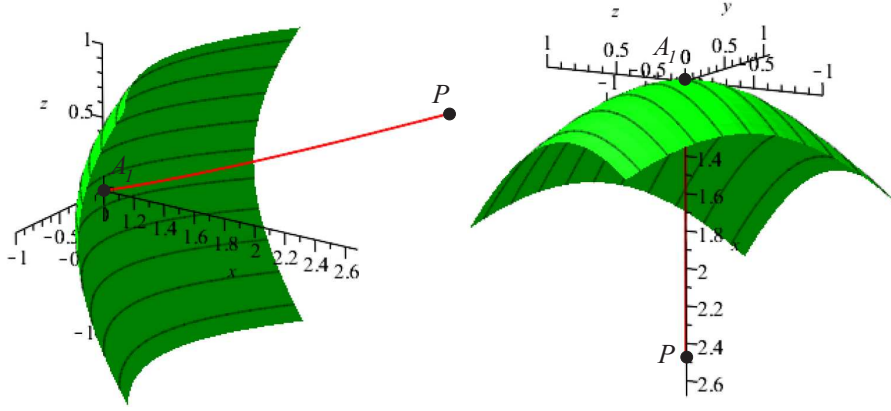


Figure 8. Geodesic curve  $g(A_1, P)$  ( $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$  and  $P \in \mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ ) with “base plane” (the “upper” sheet of the two-sheeted hyperboloid), the plane of a geodesic curve contains the origin  $E_0 = (1, 0, 0, 0)$  of the model.

(see (2.10) and (3.8)) at their starting point  $A_1$ . From (3.8) it follows that a tangent vector at the origin is given by the parameters  $u$  and  $v$  of the corresponding geodesic curve (see (2.10)), which can be determined from the homogeneous coordinates of the endpoint of the geodesic curve as the following Lemma shows:

**Lemma 3.** *Let  $(1, x, y, z)$  ( $x, y, z \in \mathbf{R}, x^2 - y^2 - z^2 \geq 0, x \geq 0$ ) be the homogeneous coordinates of the point  $P \in \mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$ . The parameters of the corresponding geodesic curve  $g(A_1, P)$  are the following:*

1.  $y, z \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $x^2 - y^2 - z^2 \neq 1$ ;

$$v = \arctan\left(\frac{\log \sqrt{x^2 - y^2 - z^2}}{\operatorname{arccosh} \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 - y^2 - z^2}}}\right), \quad u = \arctan\left(\frac{z}{y}\right),$$

$$\tau = \frac{\log \sqrt{x^2 - y^2 - z^2}}{\sin v}, \quad \text{where } -\pi < u \leq \pi, \quad -\pi/2 \leq v \leq \pi/2, \quad \tau \in \mathbf{R}^+.$$
(3.16)

2.  $y = 0, z \neq 0$  and  $x^2 - z^2 \neq 1$ ;

$$u = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad v = \arctan\left(\frac{\log \sqrt{x^2 - z^2}}{\operatorname{arccosh} \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 - z^2}}}\right),$$

$$\tau = \frac{\log \sqrt{x^2 - z^2}}{\sin v}, \quad \text{where } -\pi/2 \leq v \leq \pi/2, \quad \tau \in \mathbf{R}^+.$$
(3.17)

3.  $y = 0, z \neq 0$  and  $x^2 - z^2 = 1$ ;

$$u = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad v = 0, \quad \tau = \operatorname{arccosh}(x), \quad \tau \in \mathbf{R}^+.$$
(3.18)

4.  $y, z = 0$ ;

$$u = 0, v = \frac{\pi}{2}, \tau = \log(x), \tau \in \mathbf{R}^+. \quad (3.19)$$

□

We obtain directly from the (2.10) equations of the geodesic curves the following

**Lemma 4.** *Let  $P$  be an arbitrary point and  $g(A_1, P)$  ( $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$ ) is a geodesic curve in the considered model of  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry. The points of the geodesic curve  $g(A_1, P)$  and the centre of the model  $E_0$  lie in a plane in Euclidean sense (see Fig. 8). □*

The proof of the next theorem essentially is the same as the proof of Theorem 1.

**Theorem 4.** *If the Euclidean plane of the vertices of a  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geodesic triangle  $A_1A_2A_3$  contains the centre of model  $E_0$  then its interior angle sum is equal to  $\pi$  (see Fig. 9). □*

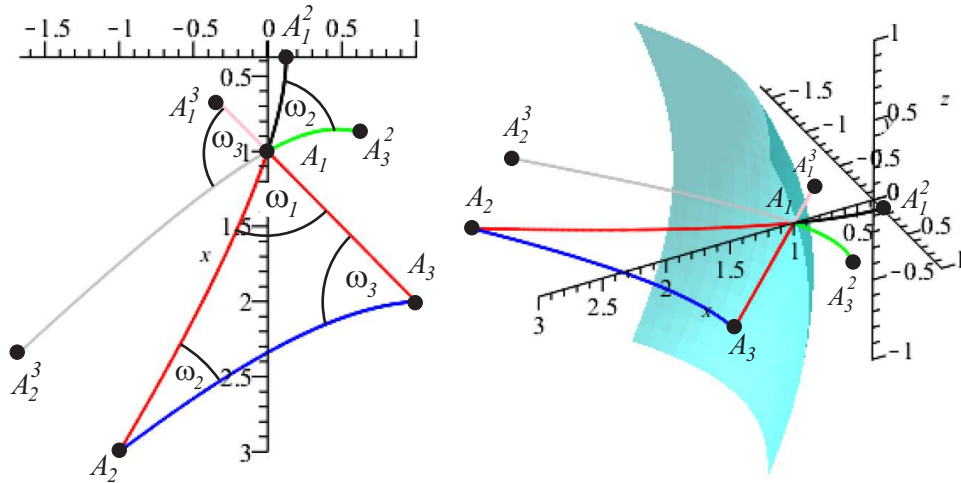


Figure 9. Geodesic triangle with vertices  $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0)$ ,  $A_2 = (1, 2, 3/2, 1)$ ,  $A_3 = (1, 3, -1, 0)$  in  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geometry, and transformed images of its geodesic side segments. The geodesic curve segments  $g(A_1, A_2)$ ,  $g(A_2, A_3)$ ,  $g(A_3, A_1)$  lie on the coordinate plane  $[x, y]$  and the interior angle sum of this geodesic triangle is  $\sum_{i=1}^3(\omega_i) = \pi$ .

We can determine the interior angle sum of arbitrary  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geodesic triangle. In the following table we summarize some numerical data of interior angles of given geodesic triangles:

<b>Table 2:</b> $A_1 = (1, 0, 0, 0), A_2 = (1, 2, 3/2, 1)$				
$A_3$	$\omega_1$	$\omega_2$	$\omega_3$	$\sum_{i=1}^3(\omega_i)$
$(1, 3/\sqrt{8}, -1/\sqrt{8}, 0)$	2.54659	0.06953	0.41780	3.03392
$(1, 3, -1, 0)$	1.93230	0.49280	0.69816	3.12325
$(1, 6, -2, 0)$	1.83102	0.71611	0.58348	3.13061
$(1, 9, -3, 0)$	1.80083	0.81224	0.51964	3.13270
$(1, 3000, -1000, 0)$	1.70394	1.25735	0.17793	3.13922

By the above experiences and computations we obtain the following

**Theorem 5.** *If the Euclidean plane of the vertices of a  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  geodesic triangle  $A_1A_2A_3$  does not contain the centre of model  $E_0$  then its interior angle sum is less than  $\pi$ .*

**Proof:** The proof is similar to the  $\mathbf{S}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  case.

We can assume without loss of generality that the vertices  $A_1, A_2$  of such a geodesic triangle lie in the  $[x, y]$  plane of the model. Using Lemma 4 we get that the geodesic segment  $A_iA_j$  ( $(i, j) \in \{(1, 2), (1, 3), 2, 3\}$ ) is contained in the  $A_iA_jE_0$  plane, therefore the sides of triangle  $A_1A_2A_3$  lie on the boundary of trihedron given by the points  $E_0, A_1, A_2, A_3$ . It is clear that all types of geodesic triangles can be described by such a triangle. Therefore, it is sufficient to investigate the interior angle sums of geodesic triangles where we fix two of the vertices, e.g.  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ , and move the third vertex  $A_3$  on the half straight line  $E_0A_3$  with starting point  $E_0 \neq A_3(t)$ .

*Remark 6.* It is well known that if the vertices  $A_1, A_2, A_3$  lie in an "upper" sheet of the two-sheeted hyperboloid (in the hyperboloid model of the hyperbolic plane geometry where the straight lines of hyperbolic 2-space are modeled by geodesics on the hyperboloid) centred at  $E_0$  then the interior angle sum of hyperbolic triangle  $A_1A_2A_3$  is less than  $\pi$ .

Let  $\Delta(t)$  ( $t \in \mathbf{R}^+$ ) denote the above geodesic triangle with interior angles  $\omega_i(t)$  at the vertex  $A_i$  ( $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ).

The interior angle sum function  $S(\Delta^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t)) = \sum_{i=1}^3(\omega_i(t))$  can be determined relative to the parameters  $x_2, y_2, z_2, x_3, y_3 \in \mathbf{R}$  by the formulas (2.10), (3.14), (3.15) and by Lemma 3. Analyzing the above complicated continuous functions of single real variable  $t$  we get that its maximum is achieved at a point  $t_0 \in (0, \infty)$  depending on given parameters. Moreover,  $S(\Delta^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t))$  is strictly increasing on the interval  $(0, t_0)$ , strictly decreasing on the interval  $(t_0, \infty)$  and

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} S(\Delta^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t)) = \pi, \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} S(\Delta^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t)) = \pi.$$

In Fig. 10 we described the  $S(\Delta(t))$  function related to geodesic triangle  $\Delta(t)$  ( $t \in (0, 5)$ ) with vertices  $A_1 = (1, 1, 0, 0), A_2 = (1, 2, 3/2, 1), A_3 = (1, 3 \cdot t, -1 \cdot t, 0)$ . Its minimum is achieved at  $t_0 \approx 0.36392$  where  $S(\Delta^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t_0)) \approx 3.03236$ .  $\square$

Finally we obtain the following

**Theorem 6.** *The sum of the interior angles of a geodesic triangle of  $\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}$  space is less than or equal to  $\pi$ .*  $\square$



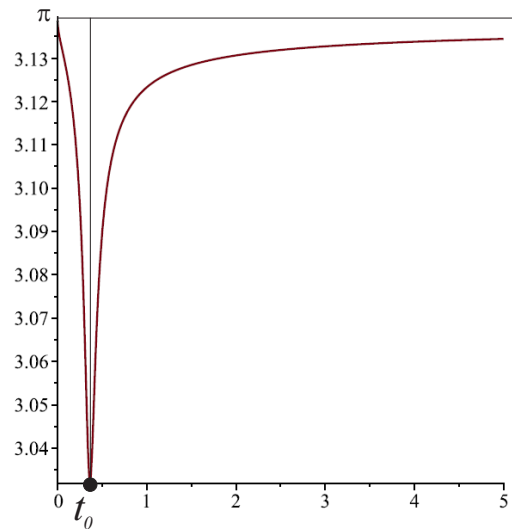


Figure 10.  $S(\Delta^{\mathbf{H}^2 \times \mathbf{R}}(t))$  function related to parameters  $x_2 = 2, y_2 = 3/1, z_2 = 1$   
 $x_3 = 3 \cdot t, y_3 = -1 \cdot t, z_3 = 0$ .

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